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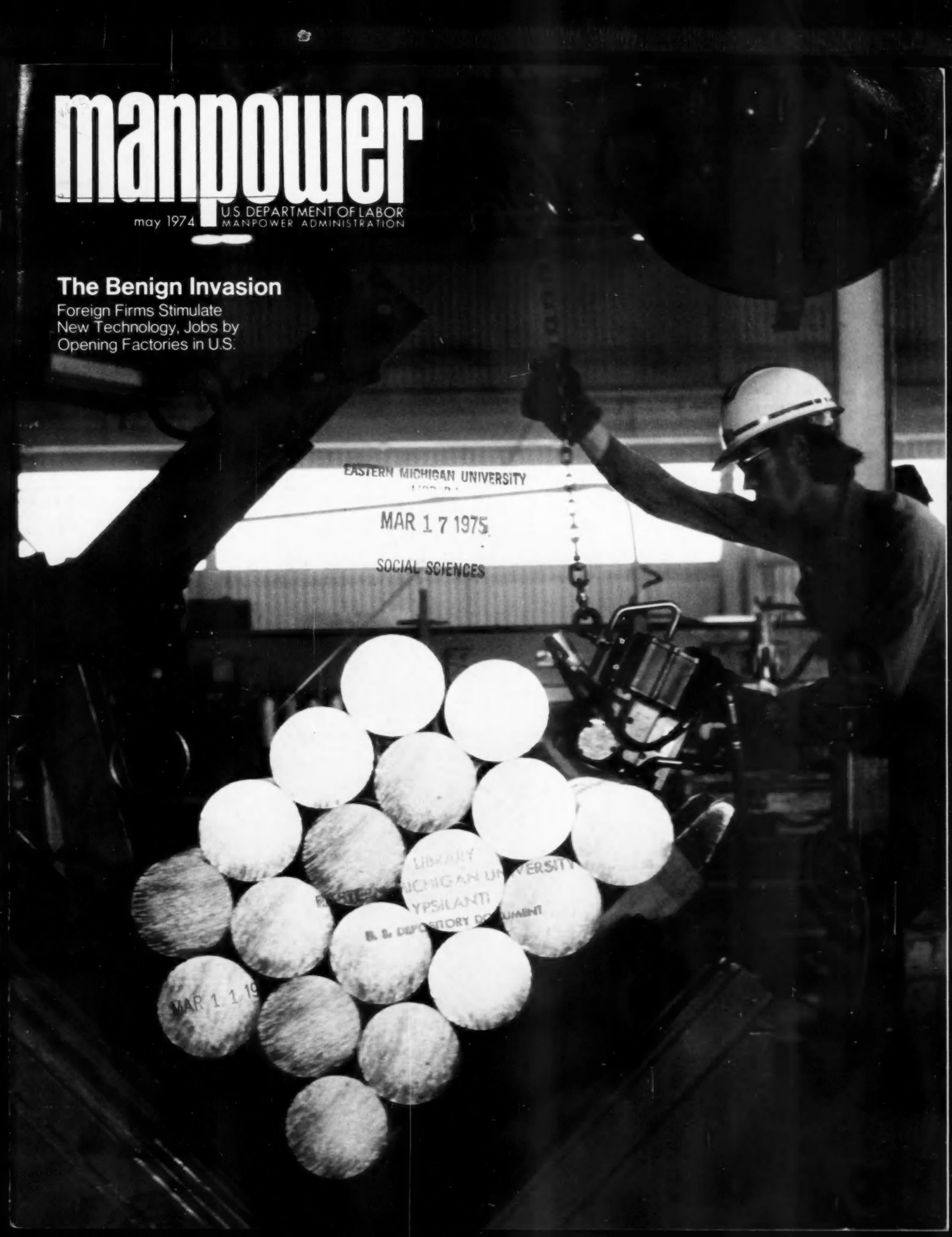
The Benign Invasion

Foreign Firms Stimulate New Technology, Jobs by Opening Factories in U.S.



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"The Japanese are invading Hawaii again. The Germans are establishing a beachhead in South Carolina. The British . . . are assaulting Wall Street. And there are rumblings of a massive attack by the Arabs."—Page 13

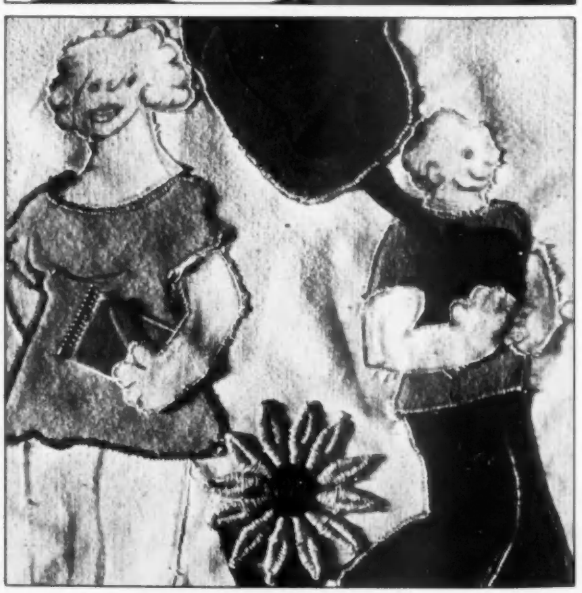
" We already have absorbed most of the trauma that CETA could place on a city."—Page 3

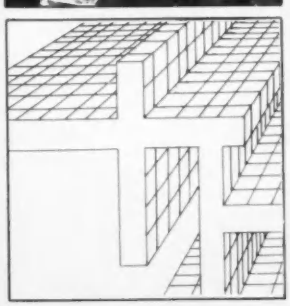
Apparently, a lot of white "juniors" are striking out in directions of their own.—Page 24

Brainstorming sessions impelled them all to voice their ideas on how to improve their self-image, to take part in role-playing, and to talk about the ways positive thinking and action can overcome the "failure syndrome."—Page 10

The business community has come to appreciate this kind of disciplined group visit as compared with some rather helter-skelter outings arranged in the past.—Page 30

"Here in Spartanburg—and throughout South Carolina—we are not only against startup losses due to untrained workers; we're also finding ways to prevent them. What we offer at Spartanburg TEC can help a new plant moving here start up in the black."—Page 18





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COVER: A worker at the French-American Eastalco aluminum plant in Buckeystown, Md., prepares a load of aluminum billets for shipment. U.S. Department of Labor photograph by James Shea.

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How Denver Got a Head Start on CETA

by Ruth Shimonkevitz

It was 5 years in coming.

And now that responsibility for and control over manpower programs is passing to the States, counties, and cities, local officials also can expect excitement, frustration, involved negotiations, and a rush to set up the mechanisms to operate a manpower services system with Federal grants.

In Denver, however, the picture is a bit different. There is considerable expectation over passage of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA)—"We couldn't wait for it to come," says city Manpower Administrator Joe Lambrecht—but the city hopes to avoid some of the frustration and the tugging and hauling that can be expected to accompany the changing of the manpower guard. As Lambrecht puts it, "We already have absorbed most of the trauma that CETA could place on a city."

Questions most States and localities will have to answer in getting ready for CETA already have been answered in Denver: Who will operate the program? Who will be served? What are the goals?

Denver recognized as early as mid–1971 the need for coordination of manpower programs at the local level. Five Federal agencies, acting under 11 separate pieces of legislation, were funding a bewildering variety of categorical manpower programs, each aimed at a specific and sometimes overlapping set of clients. Some of these programs were operated by community agencies and some by the mayor's office. Mayor William H. McNichols described the situation as "a piecemeal effort that was reaction-oriented rather than a coordinated effort which would yield timely and maximum benefts to the citizens and the community."

The city felt that it had the expertise to remedy some of the defects inherent in the loose coordination then existing in the separately operated programs. For some time it had had a Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System (CAMPS) and was sponsor of several categorical programs such as the Neighborhood Youth Corps and the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP), the latter an umbrella-style operation designed to bring together all manpower and related services to bear on the hard-core disadvantaged in areas of concentrated poverty.

City, County Coincide

Denver's power to coordinate services was further enhanced by the nature of its local government. The city and county of Denver have congruent boundaries and a single government headed by a mayor and a 13-member council. This single government can take action for the benefit of a county-wide labor market area without the usual multijurisdictional problems between city and county, and between center city and suburbs.

In July 1971, the city council passed an ordinance creating a Manpower Administration for Denver, a move regarded by Department of Labor regional officials as the key to Denver's being better prepared than most cities to carry out the mandates of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act signed into law 2 1/2 years later.

Denver made its new Manpower Administration part of the city's Urban Resources Development Agency (which also contained housing and city development components) but the Manpower Administrator often works directly with the mayor's office. The new agency was complete with the appointment of Lambrecht, then CEP director, as Manpower Administrator.

CEP, NYC, and CAMPS—as well as the then new Federal Public Employment Program—continued to operate separately within the new agency, but counseling, bookkeeping, and a variety of other functions were coordinated. This centralization of services saved $100,000 in staff costs in the first year of operation, fiscal 1972, according to Lambrecht. Four people, for example, were found adequate to handle all payrolls—the same number employed previously in payroll duties for CEP alone. The centralization also gave the staffs of the various programs the benefit of being city employees, with greater avenues to career development within Denver's personnel system.

The beneficial results of manpower centralization over the next 19 months signaled that the time had come to create in Denver as locally responsive a system as possible under existing legislation. Urged by the local CAMPS organization to adopt a manpower policy giving the city more authority over administration and funding, and convinced that special revenue sharing eventually would come, the mayor acted. In February 1973 he directed the CAMPS organization, called the Manpower Area Planning Council, to develop a manpower plan. The council, an advisory body established in 1971, is appointed by the mayor and includes representatives of local and State governments, employers, and community organizations. A staff of professional planners supports the council.

In his instructions to the council the mayor said: "It cannot be stressed too strongly that the most advantageous manpower policy for Denver is one that does not mandate any existing

Ruth Shimonkevitz is a U. S. Department of Labor information officer in Denver.

CETA

categorical program nor guarantee the perpetuation of any existing service agency." He said he was looking for a plan that would:

- Decategorize programs so far as possible and reorganize them along functional lines.
- Maximize interagency cooperation and coordination.
- Spend manpower money only for manpower functions. Social services would be delivered through coordination with nonmanpower agencies.
- Improve the earnings capability of the "unemployed and underemployed, disadvantaged residents of Denver, through job training and prevocational orientation."

These positive guidelines gave the 26-member council a solid base from which to allocate limited manpower resources and to make decisions. The council identified more than 200 manpower-related agencies in the community and solicited their advice on client groups and goals.

The plan was submitted to the Department of Labor in May. It asked for a total of $2.6 million in Economic Opportunity Act and Manpower Development and Training Act funds. These funds would be used for the purposes of each act, but along functional rather than categorical lines. For example, there would be no Neighborhood Youth Corps program as such, but disadvantaged youngsters would be offered work experience, training, and other needed services.

Groups to be served, and the proportion of total participants they were to account for, were:

Chicanos, 54 percent; blacks, 35 percent; other minorities, 6 percent; Anglos, 5 percent—youth (16–21), 50 per-

People coming to the Operation SER office in west Denver for training or job assistance get registration forms from receptionist Gloria Madrid. SER is one of six community agencies designated by the city as manpower centers.

Josie Reyes (standing), instructor in clerical job training courses for Operation SER, helps a student in bookkeeping class.

Sandra Sullivan conducts a class in communications skills at Denver's Opportunities Industrialization Center.

Trainee Carleton Miles works on a wire wrapping at the Denver OIC. The OIC has a contract with IBM to do the wiring work, an arrangement that enables OIC participants to earn money while getting job training.

cent; workers 45 to 64, 10 percent—persons with less than 12 years of education, 65 percent—and the handicapped, 3 percent. Priority was to be given veterans, welfare recipients, women, and heads of households, although no percentage goals were listed.

Six community agencies were designated "manpower centers." They were selected by the council because of their community orientation and past performance in dealing with minorities. The city would negotiate subcontracts with each agency when its then-current Federal contract expired. The agencies and their designated services and primary target groups were:

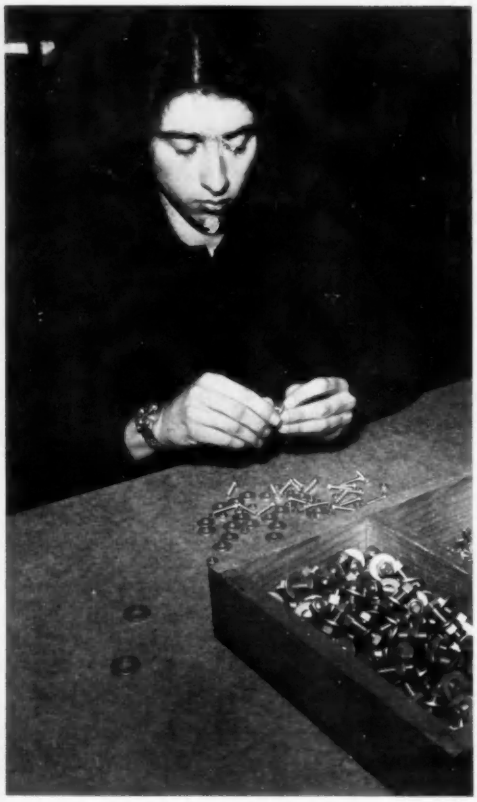
- Operation Service, Employment, and Redevelopment (SER)—English language, skill, and on-the-job training for Chicanos.
- Opportunities Industrialization Center (OIC)—On-the-job training, with high industry involvement for blacks.
- Metro Denver Construction Plan—Opening construction trades opportunities for minorities.
- Freedom House, an affiliate of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People—Counseling and placement for blacks.
- Indian Center—Urban orientation for American Indians.
- Denver's Manpower Administration—Training and job placement for the disadvantaged.

The State employment service would be funded to provide staff help and other special services such as counseling, testing, and employability planning, as well as classroom vocational training. The employment service also would furnish Job Bank viewers, handle job development and placement, and provide labor market information. Administration of the program would

CETA

Denver Manpower Administration planning staff members (from left) Al Percival, Dave Herrera, and Larry Hardacre discuss effects of the energy shortage on the local job market.

John K. Lung (standing), manager of the Denver Manpower Administration's basic tool technology unit, explains the training and assessment device to Harold McClain, staff member for the in-school program.



Jobseeker Randy Romero takes a timed work sample test to help determine his ability to do certain kinds of jobs. Located in the Denver Manpower Administration, the work sample unit is used by all the city's manpower centers.

Two trainees receiving help from the Denver Manpower Administration review their progress and problems in finding a job with counselor Dorothy Ostermeier (center).

be centered in the Denver Manpower Administration. Technical resources and facilities also would be centralized to eliminate expensive duplications. For example, a work sampling unit located in one agency would serve clients throughout the system. Clients needing work-related social services would be referred to other city agencies.

Public Service Careers, a program to place the disadvantaged in government agencies as professional aides or in similar white-collar jobs that have built-in career ladders, would not be part of the Denver Manpower Administration. When Federal funding for this program ended, it would be absorbed into the city's personnel system. Welfare clients would be referred to the Work Incentive (WIN) Program; only if they could not be enrolled in WIN in a reasonable time would they be accepted in the new system. The Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program would continue to be operated independently by the National Alliance of Businessmen, but would share information about job openings with the Denver Manpower Administration.

The Department of Labor's regional office in Denver, which had helped the city plan the system, accepted the proposal in June 1973 with very few alterations. The proposal met several regional office goals: To reduce the number of individual contracts and the average cost per placement, and to have community groups involved in the planning.

After Labor Department approval, Denver began developing subcontracts with the manpower centers and hoped to have them completed by the end of September. This was the first unexpected snag. Extensions of funding by Federal agencies and other factors delayed the completion of subcontracting until February of this year.

The subcontracts give Denver control of cross funding. For example, Freedom House previously had operated with money from the Governor's office, the State's Committee on Community Relations, the U.S. Justice Department's Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, and the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development's Model Cities Program. These agencies now must contract with Denver for manpower services, not the individual centers.

Under the subcontracting arrangements for the current fiscal year, SER received $534,000, OIC $143,000, Freedom House $96,000, the Indian Center $55,000, the Metro Denver Construction Plan $35,000, and the State employment service, $941,000. The $800,000-plus remainder stayed with the Denver Manpower Administration for its own work and training projects and for administration, management, and other services.

Advisory Units Established

A management change made early in the fiscal year removed representatives of the manpower centers from the Manpower Area Planning Council. This group is now called the Manpower Advisory Council, and advises the mayor on overall manpower strategy. A Management Advisory Group made up of the directors of the manpower centers and the Denver Manpower Administration executive staff was set up to advise on actual program operations.

While Denver has been under this type of prime sponsorship only since last June, Lambrecht and his staff feel that the new operation is going well. By the end of the current fiscal year, they expect to have trained and placed

almost 1,100 people at an average cost of about $2,500.

Lambrecht points to the new relationship between the manpower centers as one area that has been strengthened. He says competition for funding has diminished and the centers are working together and directing their concern to the local instead of to the national or Federal level.

Furthermore, the centralized operation has saved money in several administrative support areas, such as travel, payroll, and personnel actions. For example, the travel budget for Denver's manpower system this year is about 3 percent compared with as much as 10 percent for individual agencies in the past.

Team Approach Used

The process of referring "walk-in" clients to the appropriate center has been strengthened, Lambrecht says, and the close referral linkage developed between the Denver Manpower Administration and the employment service, which administers such programs as MDTA classroom training, has widened the range of job opportunities available to Denver's poorer citizens.

The new arrangement also is giving Denver time to test some manpower concepts before moving into CETA. What special expertise is needed to solve the jobseeking problems of youth under 18? Is subcontracting to the centers the best route for delivering services or would a centralized team approach be better? Denver's Manpower Administration conducts its nonsubcontracted training projects through five teams—one specializes in youth—which work with disadvantaged people needing jobs and training. Effectiveness of these centralized teams in terms of quality of service and cost can thus be compared with that of the other five centers—for the disadvantaged as a whole and for youth in particular.

Delay in negotiating subcontracts is not the only problem Denver has faced. Setting up performance criteria and establishing a manpower information system to meet CETA requirements and to help local manpower planners also have taken longer than expected.

"But our worst problems don't exist now," said Lambrecht. Denver has ceased to be a battleground for competing manpower agencies. Cooperation and efficiency are now the watchwords, and "our vendors are assured of getting their share of money as long as they meet their goals," said Lambrecht. Funding for the coming fiscal year appears to present no immediate problem since CETA assures sponsors—States, cities, and other units of local government—of receiving at least 90 percent of funds allocated to their areas in fiscal 1974 exclusive of the Public Employment Program (PEP), which is being phased out.

As for future problems, Denver foresees three possibilities:

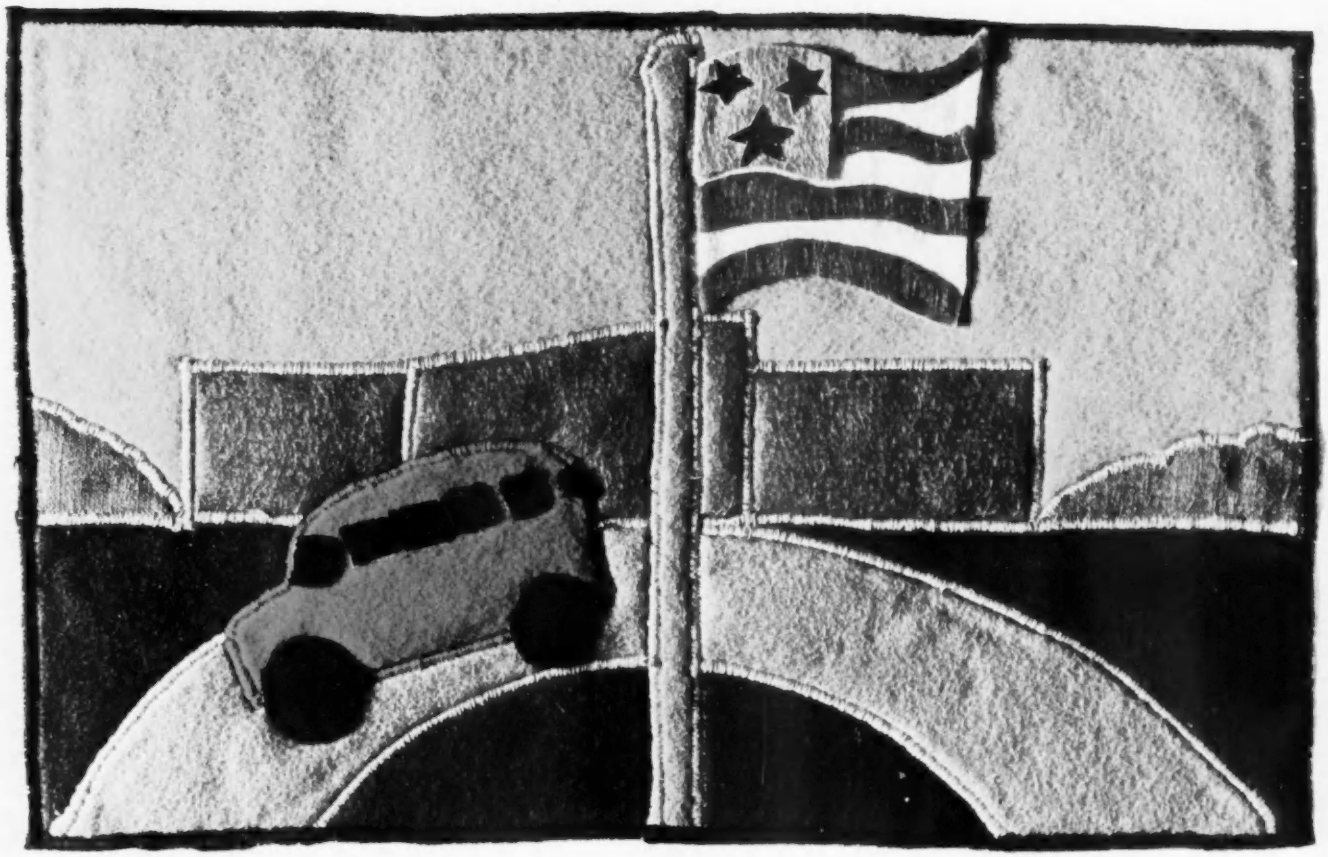
- Trying to organize a consortium agreement covering about 1.5 million people with four surrounding counties, into which the Denver labor market spills. Annexation disputes with two of these counties make negotiations on any other issue difficult.
- Local groups not included in the new system but still wishing to continue manpower programs may look to the city for money. Lambrecht notes that the question of which local agencies would be aided was faced last year, and while Denver doesn't expect absolute quiet on this front, the question has been settled.
- Possible termination of Federal funding of other local programs. The end of special summer job programs for youth, for example, could leave needy youngsters without a job resource they have come to count on. But the mayor is confident new resources can be found through the city's Manpower Administration.

Denver's "delivery system model" has been cited by the National League of Cities/U.S. Conference of Mayors as "an excellent example of what can be done in the first phase by a city assuming prime sponsorship." For communities now entering this phase, Lambrecht warns of a key area of frustration—lack of communication between planners and elected officials. Local officials in many cases will be new to manpower and will have to be shown the benefits of decategorization and decentralization. Denver managed to avoid this frustration because its planning group was part of the city's Manpower Administration and Lambrecht, the man in charge of manpower operations, was a member of the planning committee.

Sources of Help Cited

Mayor McNichols advises cities uncertain of their ground to seek help from the National League of Cities/U.S. Conference of Mayors, "They've been involved at both the Federal and local levels and can get newcomers together with an expert to get them started." The most important source of help will be the Department of Labor's regional offices, whose manpower officials are being given in-depth training on CETA and can help local groups to develop manpower service systems that meet both Federal requirements and local needs.

As for Denver, it has a year's head start. The city is ready for CETA. □



Designing Work Projects For In-School Youth

Manual Outlines Alternative Goals and Suggests Ways to Meet Them

To the casual observer, all work-experience programs for high school youth may look the same. But when examined closely it turns out that—like snowflakes—no two are exactly alike.

The general formula goes something like this: Students work part time, usually for entry-level wages. The extra money often enables them to complete high school. The work experience helps prepare them for the job market. What could be simpler?

But there is room for infinite variety in this uncomplicated framework. Some projects can train youngsters for specific jobs into which they can move right after high school. Others can offer a variety of work assignments to give students a chance to find out what kind of full-time job they might prefer when they finish high school. Still others can be designed not only to help youngsters complete high school but also to assist them in obtaining scholarships and government grants to attend college.

All of these techniques—and a wide array of others—have been used over the past 10 years in the Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC). And those that have worked best are described in a new how-to-do-it manual produced by Systems Research, under contract with the Manpower Administration. Systems Research surveyed more than 700 local NYC in-school projects to gather material for the manual, *In-School Youth Manpower: A Guide to Local Strategies and Methods*.[1] Field surveys were made of 31 projects that displayed innovative techniques or were judged to be particularly effective.

The manual assumes that the lessons learned from nearly 10 years of NYC experience, involving more than a million youth, will be useful even though the funding of manpower programs and the responsibility for running them will be changed next fiscal year through manpower revenue sharing. Revenue sharing will mean block-grant funding for States and cities and other local governments, which will establish their own program priorities, and many of them are expected to want to continue NYC-style projects.

The manual identifies 10 basic components necessary for the effective operation of a work project for in-school youth, and goes into some detail as to

[1] *In-School Youth Manpower: A Guide to Local Strategies and Methods* is available from the National Technical Information Service, 5285 Port Royal Rd., Springfield, Va., 22151, for $3.75 for a paper copy and $1.45 for microfiche (specify accession number PB 224802). Please enclose payment with order.

Designing Work Projects

what is required to establish these components and get them working. The basic components are recruitment and orientation of participants and employers, job development and placement, counseling, support services, program monitoring, administration, community linkages, and public relations.

But the manual goes beyond these routine components to identify "areas of emphasis" or "alternate strategies" developed by local project sponsors that have been found particularly effective. One area of emphasis, for example, is self-image development. A good project along this line will coax disadvantaged youngsters with poor opinions of themselves into shedding their proclivity for failure and teach them to develop confident attitudes that lead to success in school and out, the manual says. It points out that youngsters ripe for this style of project can be identified by poor school attendance, apparent lack of motivation, repeated juvenile offenses, and inability to solve personal problems. Any juvenile authority can provide an interested sponsor with a long list of prospects.

The NYC project at Brockton, Mass. served as the model for the manual's self-image development component. One hundred and fifty boys and girls with severe behavioral problems were put through sensitivity training sessions designed to bring their hangups into the open and to make them aware that other people have problems too. They were not allowed to sit passively and listen. Brainstorming sessions impelled them all to voice their ideas on how to improve their self-image, to take part in role-playing, and to talk about the ways positive thinking and action can overcome the "failure syndrome." Staff members received special instruction in group dynamics and sensitivity training under the supervision of a psychologist.

For work experience, enrollees were placed in responsible assignments—for instance at the audiovisual department of a nearby college—that would challenge their ability to get useful work accomplished. As a final bid to build their confidence and self-esteem, the manual notes, the NYC youngsters

were permitted to evaluate their jobs and their worksite supervisors.

One unusual success story has come out of the Brockton project. Today six to eight participants regularly work on maintenance of a State park created out of a city landfill a few years back by a group of enrollees. The NYC youngster who inspired the group to create the park now is a local city councilman.

Another area of emphasis covered in the manual is vocational skills. Projects deciding to go this route are instructed to put together a program to give youth the work skills needed to qualify for a specific full-time job upon graduation. This means that work assignments must offer relatively easy transition to permanent employment.

A statewide project with headquarters in Albany, N.Y., was used as the model. This project relied heavily on the State employment service for testing and job placement, and upon other State agencies for work assignments and permanent jobs. Heavy stress was laid on acquiring the skills needed for many State jobs.

On leaving the project, most participants were placed in suitable permanent jobs or moved on to postsecondary education. All were contacted by staff members 1 month later and 6 months later, and 80 percent were working in permanent jobs or were in school or training after 6 months. The project staff helped to arrange jobs or training for many of the remaining 20 percent.

In addition to self-image development and vocational skills, six other areas of emphasis suggested by the manual are participant involvement, income maintenance, community responsibility, academic skills, career exploration, and workmanship training. These six are also explained in detail.

No project can emphasize everything, the manual stresses. Budgetary limitations and varying local conditions rule this out. The manual is designed to help a sponsor decide which emphasis is best for the disadvantaged youngsters in the community, and then guide the sponsor as to just what services should be provided to give the project the best chance for success. □

The Benign **Invasion**

by Timothy Larkin

Foreign Firms Stimulate New Technology, Jobs by Opening Factories in U.S.

"I'll tell you in just four words what direct foreign investment in the United States means for this country and for the people of the Palmetto State in particular," said South Carolina's Governor John C. West. "Those words are: Jobs, jobs, jobs, jobs."

Ever since French writer, publisher, soldier, and politician Jean-Jacques Servan-Schreiber's bombshell best seller about the U.S. overseas investment, THE AMERICAN CHALLENGE, foreign investment has come to be seen less in terms of jobs and more in terms of confrontation. Servan-Schreiber's 1967 book bristled with military analogies. American super-business was "assaulting Europe," forcing its back to the wall by virtue of a superior "American arsenal" of business techniques. American investment deployed computerized battalions which threw a still horsedrawn continent into confusion.

THE AMERICAN CHALLENGE warned Europe to observe the American juggernaut and learn how "it thrusts, twists, enfolds, tears away, carries off, breaks open, and attacks." Having absorbed the lessons of superior American "striking power," Europe should then "counterattack."

Since recent years have seen a remarkable increase in foreign investment in the United States, it is perhaps only natural, as well as a tribute to Servan-Schreiber's vivid language, to see the process in similar terms. Indeed, this is exactly what is happening. An article in a leading U.S. newspaper echoes the French author by reporting that: "The Japanese are invading Hawaii again. The Germans are establishing a beachhead in South Carolina. The British . . . are assaulting Wall Street. And there are rumblings of a massive attack by the Arabs."

In view of the rapid growth of foreign investment in the United States, it seems worthwhile finding out which is more accurate, Servan-Schreiber's language of confrontation, challenge, conflict, and counterattack, or Governor West's solid noun. Perhaps the best way to find the answer is by discarding what foreign investment *isn't*, before looking at what it does in practice.

To begin with, foreign investment in the United States isn't new. From the beginning, it has formed a basic part of our international economic policy. As early as 1791 our first Secretary of the Treasury, Alexander Hamilton, was urging that foreign investment not be "viewed as a rival" but rather treated on an equal basis with domestic capital. Through such a policy, Hamilton stated, a greater quantity of productive labor could be put into motion along with a "greater portion of useful enterprise."

Foreign Firms 'Naturalized'

This "open door" policy of Hamilton's enabled the Nation during its infancy and rapid growth to benefit from an influx of foreign funds that helped build our canals, our railroads, and our factories; and helped finance both national and State banks.

Many of the foreign companies passing through that open door have been on the American scene for 50 to 150 years, so long, in fact, that they seem as naturally American as Thanksgiving turkey or the Conestoga wagon. Few think of Nestles chocolate as Swiss, Shell as British and Dutch, Lipton's as British, Bayer as German, Carling beer as Canadian, Kiwi shoe polish as Australian. These firms have, in a real sense, become "naturalized."

While U.S. policy concerning foreign investment is as old as the Nation itself, and while the amount of foreign investment of all kinds is at least 1,200 times that of 170 years ago, the proportion of foreign holdings is much smaller today than it was during the early years of American growth, when it would not have been exaggerated to say that foreigners practically "owned" the United States. As reported by historian Louis Hacker, 53 percent of the national debt in 1803 was in foreign hands, as was 63 percent of the stock of the National Bank, and one-quarter of the total capitalized worth of American corporations.

For comparison, by the end of 1972 the total capitalized worth of all American corporations was $2,500 billion, compared with $53 billion in both foreign direct and portfolio investment in those corporations—a current ratio of 47 to 1 against the 1803 figure of 4 to 1.

So, not only is foreign investment not new; and not only is foreign investment a smaller proportion of our national wealth today than in earlier times, but the kind of foreign investment that confers *control*—direct foreign investment, as distinguished from such other forms as investment in real estate, U.S. Government obligations, and bank and commercial loans—is but a fraction of the total. The official U.S. figure for such direct investment was $14.4 billion at yearend 1972.

Also, foreign investment is not Japanese dominated. Despite cartoons showing Japanese businessmen buying Pearl Harbor and the great publicity about such recent Japanese investments as aircraft in Texas, a steel mill in New York, a horsefarm in Kentucky, and soy sauce in Wisconsin, most direct foreign investment continues to come from traditional sources—the United

Timothy Larkin is a contributing editor of MANPOWER.

Benign **Invasion**

Foreign-owned plants not only hire American workers directly, but also help produce additional jobs by contracting work to other U.S. firms. Here Jack Fralick, manager of the Susquehanna Metal Box Company in Havre de Grace, Md., and a production worker check out one of the machines used to make tin containers for the Australian-owned Kiwi Polish Company.

Kingdom, Canada, and the Netherlands, in that order.

One not unnatural fear about direct foreign investment is that American firms will be taken over and run by outsiders. Such fears have been stirred recently by publicity surrounding the Canadian Development Corporation's takeover of Texasgulf and by foreign bids for Airco, Gimbels, Ronson, Signal Oil, Stouffers, and other companies. However, according to a survey by Jeffrey S. Arpan and David A. Ricks on Foreign Direct Investments in the United States, instead of entering the U.S. market by means of acquiring existing American business operations, fully 90 percent of the firms surveyed entered the U.S. market by creating totally new enterprises.

Jobs Go to Americans

Obviously, such new enterprises can help generate opportunities for Americans—except if the jobs go to foreigners. The same Arpan and Ricks survey shows that not only do U.S. citizens make up 99 percent of the estimated 970,000 persons employed by foreign firms in this country, but even top management is largely American. Presidents of foreign owned subsidiaries are more often than not U.S. citizens, and the boards of directors of these subsidiaries tend to be divided almost equally between citizens and noncitizens.

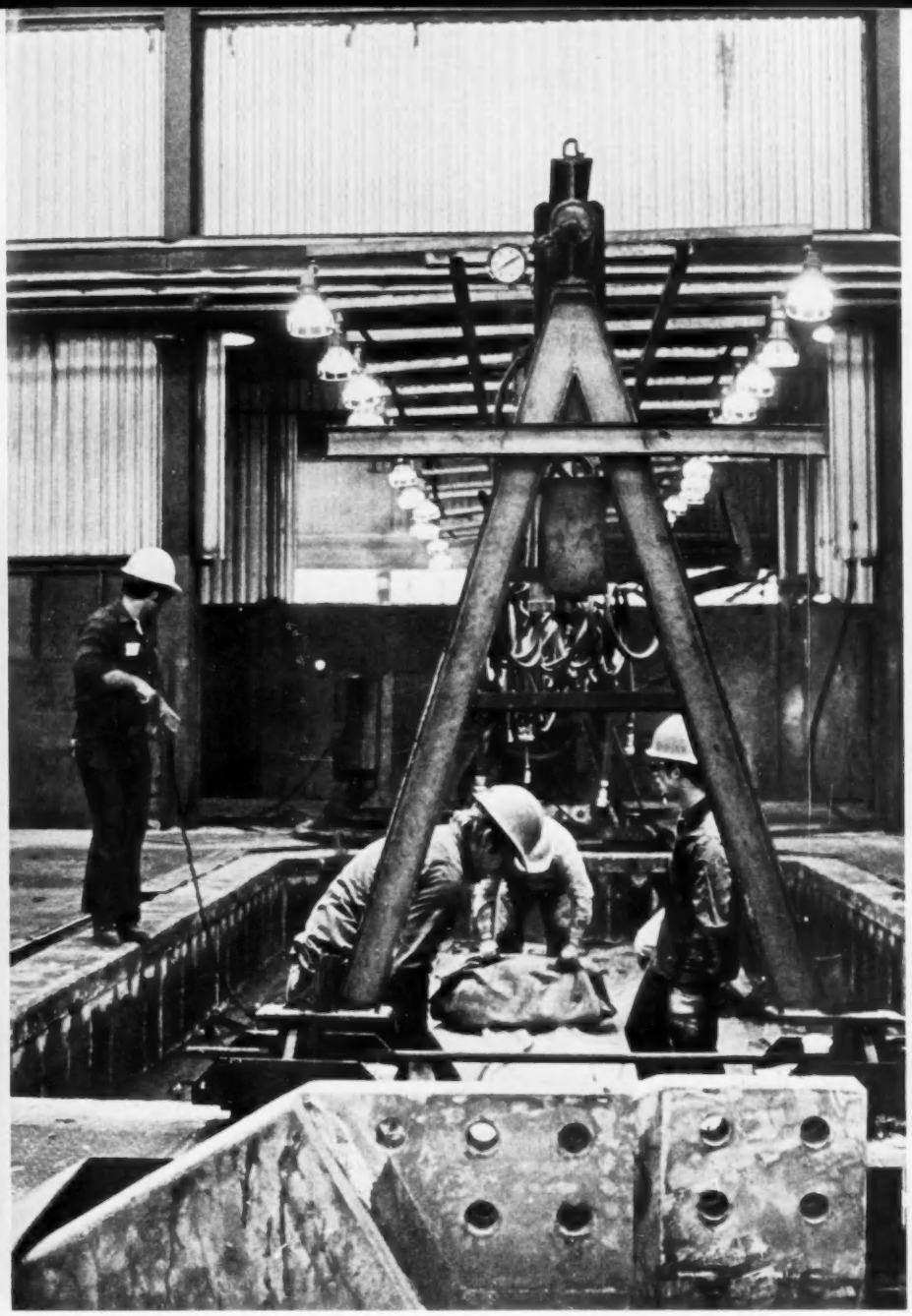
Since management of complex modern corporations, rather than ownership, is often a more precise and realistic measure of control, this would seem to support the conclusion that a great many of the foreign firms are actually controlled by Americans. This is of great significance when assessing fears that foreign firms might import foreign labor practices to complicate U.S. labor-management relations, and possibly dilute the wages and fringe benefits enjoyed by American workers.

As a final entry on the list of what foreign direct investment isn't, it is important to note that the richness of the American market or the upraised torch of the Statue of Liberty do not automatically produce long lines of foreign firms awaiting entry through the golden door. Foreign investors have to be wooed, and won. In fact, potential foreign investors of a historical bent can find good reason to be as wary of American investments as of investing in even more "undeveloped countries." The U.S. depression of 1877 cost Europeans about $600 million, a staggering sum then, large even in these days of trillion dollar GNP's. Such experiences left many investors bitter.

After one of the recurring 19th century U.S. "panics" in which a supposedly rock solid Pennsylvania bank sank without a trace, one badly scalded British investor said that when he met a Pennsylvanian at a London dinner he felt "a disposition to seize and divide him—to allot his beaver to one sufferer and his coat to another; to appropriate his pocket handkerchief to the orphan; and, to comfort the widow, his silver watch, Broadway rings, and the London Guide which he always carries in his pockets. How such a man can set himself down at an English table without feeling that he owes 2 or 3 pounds to every man in the company, I am at a loss to conceive. He has no more right to eat with an honest man than a leper has to eat with clean."

While the days of bursting bubbles and imaginary assets have passed, potential investors still have certain natural qualms about investing in any foreign market, even one as comparatively stable as ours has come to be. They wonder about their ability to compete with experienced and perhaps far more heavily capitalized American companies, about the vastness of the Nation with possibly enormous transportation costs, and whether they can make a profit or even survive in the supposedly high-cost American domestic market. Above all, they wonder, will they be welcome.

To help answer those and other questions and so still the fears of foreign investors, the Department of Commerce began in 1961 actively promoting the U.S. as a good place to invest. As described by Assistant Sec-



Some 220,000 tons of aluminum billets, rolling ingots, and remelt ingots are produced annually at the French-American Eastalco aluminum plant in Buckeystown, Md., and the operation pumps about $30 million a year into the economy in wages, taxes, and the purchase of goods and services.

It is not only the industrial giants that invest in the United States. The Icelandic Coldwater Seafood Corporation packs and processes frozen fish for the American market in its plant near Cambridge on Maryland's Eastern Shore.

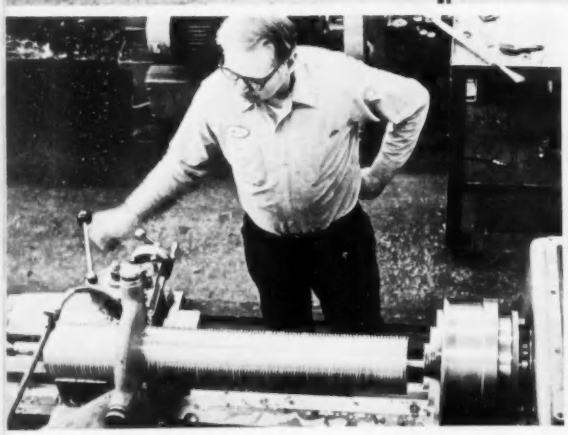
retary of Commerce for Economic Affairs Sidney L. Jones, this "Invest in America" program concentrates on gaining new manufacturing operations "to create jobs, replace imports with new technology, and add to our economic growth."

The Commerce effort works closely with vigorous promotion programs carried out by individual State industrial development offices, with the National Association of State Development Agencies, and with local chambers of commerce. Usually, the States follow up contacts made at overseas "Invest in USA" conferences sponsored by the Commerce Department.

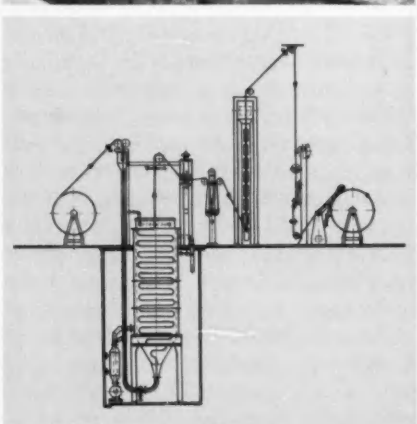
In recent months major Invest in USA conferences moved around the world from Munich to Dusseldorf to Stuttgart to Stockholm and on to Tokyo and Osaka. Some indication of the intensity of State interest can be seen by the fact that over 170 representatives from 36 States participated in the conferences in Japan. Other, so-called "miniconferences" are held often in many foreign cities.

As Jones puts it, while "foreign investments represent such a small proportion of total U.S. investments in comparable fields, their overall effect on the total domestic economy probably is minor. But the significance at the local level can be quite great, and this is reflected in the energetic involvement of virtually all the State development agencies and many of the State Governors in promotional activities." Certainly the efforts of some States reflect the highest traditions of American go-getting salesmanship, with fierce competition for important foreign investors. Some idea of the magnitude of this competition can be gained from

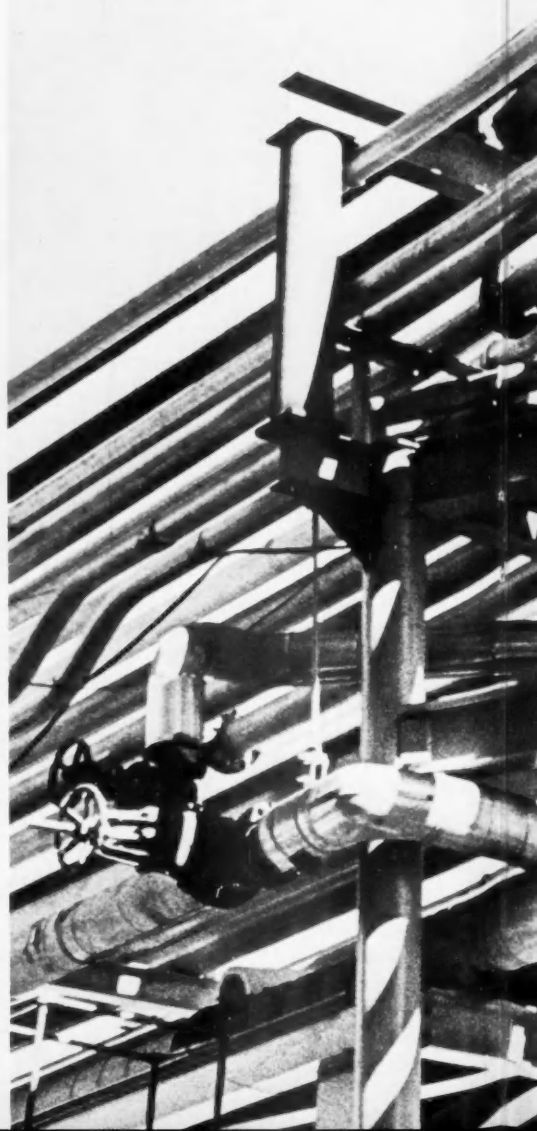
Benign **Invasion**



The specialized textile machinery made in Menzel's Spartanburg plant is sold not only in the U.S., but in overseas markets as well.



Four languages—German, English, French, and Spanish—are used in the catalog of its textile machinery published by Menzel, the first West German plant to locate in Spartanburg. The drawings diagraming the machines probably would have delighted Rube Goldberg.



Hoechst Fibers' Spartanburg plant covers about 670 acres with some 120 additional acres available for expansion. The plant is the largest single Hoechst fiber producer outside West Germany, and the only one to incorporate chemical production facilities on the same site. The chemical production process requires the maze of pipes shown below.

the fact that 14 States maintain full-time industrial development branch offices overseas.

Virginia's Division of Industrial Development courted the West German rotogravure printing company, Burda Druck, the way college recruiters vie for a high school quarterback able to run 100 yards in 9.5 seconds and pass with target rifle accuracy. In the process Virginia came up against equally vigorous courtship by Pennsylvania, North Carolina, Maryland, and West Virginia. Another such competition recently climaxed in Virginia's gaining the $100-million assembly plant being built by the Swedish Volvo of America Corporation at Chesapeake. Since Virginia opened its first full-time foreign trade office 5 years ago, 36 foreign firms have been attracted to the State, involving the hiring of 8,200 workers.

The Spartanburg Formula

Maryland, another State with an overseas office, similarly won over considerable competition to secure the French aluminum production firm, Pechiney, which joined with an American concern to create the $190-million Eastalco Aluminum Company.

While there is no guaranteed way to bring foreign investment into a particular State—except the hard work of marshaling every conceivable argument favoring a particular location—if such a method did exist, it would probably be called the Spartanburg Formula.

Until the mid-1960's, Spartanburg, S.C. was just another pretty face among the hundreds of medium-sized towns in America. It had the usual list of minor claims to fame: Fresh Peach Capital of the World! Converse College for women, and its converse, Wofford College for men. Home of Kaye Barry, Revolutionary War heroine. Fresh air

Benign **Invasion**

Textile machinery mechanics from firms that have purchased Swiss Sulzer weaving machines learn how to repair them in classes conducted at the Sulzer plant in Spartanburg.

fish camps offering succulent prime ribs of catfish, catfish stew, and the quietest of hush puppies.

Today, it could well take down those old peach capital signs and proclaim itself the Foreign Investment Capital of the United States, for strung out along the interstate highways near the city are new, cleanly designed factories bearing foreign names and often flying proudly both Old Glory and German, Swiss, or other flags.

In less than a decade 30 foreign companies (10 German, 9 Swiss, 3 British, 2 Austrian, 1 Canadian, 2 South African, 1 Italian, 1 Japanese, and 1 Dutch) have located in Spartanburg. And, as Richard E. Tukey, executive director of Spartanburg's Chamber of Commerce, puts it, "We're still counting."

Perhaps more than any other man, Tukey can be considered both the architect and builder of the Spartanburg Formula. A transplanted New Yorker, Tukey first discovered South Carolina in an unorthodox way. He parachuted from an Army transport plane during World War II. Now he is Spartanburg's greatest salesman. Tukey sums up the Spartanburg Formula by saying, "We don't sell South Carolina's magnolias and moonlight, even though they're here. We sell economic justification."

Guenther I. O. Ruebcke, president of Hoechst Fibers, which has invested $200 million in its 1-million-square-foot polyester fibers plant in Spartanburg, provides more detail. The formula, according to Ruebcke, contains such elements as an energetic chamber of commerce; an enlightened business community; cooperation from the communications media, utilities, and public services; and cooperation of realtors, retailers, and suppliers.

While this certainly provides the foundation for any successful formula, many other cities can offer the same attractions. Surely there must be something else behind Spartanburg's unusual degree of success.

Roland H. A. Gottlieb, German Consul General for the Southeastern United States, believes that "something else" is Tukey's personal interest. Referring to Tukey, Gottlieb said, "He has felt deeply the needs not only of the investor, but also for the wives and children. He has realized they wanted to know about daily life, housing, shopping, and schools. And he didn't wait until the families came here. He and his wife went to Germany to give the information."

Training Is Big Factor

South Carolina Governor West cites still another reason why so many foreign firms are attracted to Spartanburg and other cities in his State. "Our job training program has been the biggest factor in our success," he said. "We've given job training to over a third of the South Carolina work force."

Both Gottlieb and Hoechst's vice president for operations, Paul Forster, agree about the importance of training programs as an inducement for foreign investors. Spartanburg and 16 other locations in South Carolina possess an excellent system of post-high school technical education centers. These centers provide for manufacturers preemployment training that enables new companies to count on a supply of trained workers ready when the factory doors open.

Joe D. Gault, director of Spartanburg Technical Education Center (TEC), explains the training centers' contribution this way: "Traditionally, manufacturers spend large amounts of time and money to recruit and train a work force for a new plant. These and other costs result in major startup losses that can force the new plant to begin its operations in the red. Here in Spartanburg—and throughout South Carolina—we are not only against startup losses due to untrained workers; we're also finding ways to prevent them. What we offer at Spartanburg TEC can help a new plant moving here start up in the black."

In addition to preemployment training, Spartanburg TEC provides other forms of technical education of direct

Richard E. Tukey, executive vice president of the Spartanburg Chamber of Commerce, has helped attract so much foreign investment to the area that nearby Interstate Highway 85, where many of the foreign firms are located, is often referred to as "Tukey Turnpike."

Spartanburg Technical Education Center Director Joe Gault: "We can provide preemployment or on-the-job training in the center or in a plant. It's a real inducement for companies to come into this area."

importance to manufacturers seeking skilled workers. For example, it has conducted machine operating and a variety of synthetic fiber courses for workers at the Hoechst Fibers plant; basic blueprint reading, welding, and shop math for Menzel; metalworking courses for Bruckner; and textile dyeing and finishing courses for the American Fast Print Company, a Canadian firm.

The influx of foreign investors into Spartanburg has made itself felt in many ways: Direct employment by foreign plants of 4,000 workers—over 10 percent of Spartanburg's manufacturing employment. A doubling of average income over the past 10 years. An infusion of tax dollars to raise the support level for schools and other community services. And, most importantly perhaps, an unemployment rate that dropped from 5.2 percent 10 years ago to the present 2.1 percent, or slightly over half the rate considered to be "full employment."

More jobs, higher incomes, a stronger tax base. These are not unexpected results of new industry, whether domestic or foreign. Three other results are not so obvious: New technology and skills, a new source of exports, and the benefits of competition.

When Britain's Bowater Corporation migrated to Tennessee and South Carolina with the largest newsprint operation in the United States, it introduced new fast printing press technology. Japan's Sony brought with it the Trinitron color television tube, which uses one "gun" instead of the usual three. Sweden's Svenska Kullagerfabriken A.B. introduced the self-aligning ball bearing, and Alfa-Laval A.B., the centrifugal separator.

In Spartanburg, the same process of new ideas, methods, and products enriching America's technology and store of skills is continuing. The West German International Zima Corporation provided the technology that converted the U.S. carpet industry from discontinuous dyeing to the German Kusters continuous dyeing process. The Swiss Sulzer Corporation is continually training American workers and instructors in how to operate its highly sophisticated electronic Morat knitting and Sulzer weaving machines. A related result of new technology and new capital investment is an increase in the productivity of the U.S. work force.

Imports Become Exports

Another aspect of gaining foreign firms is that many products formerly imported are now made here in the United States. Indeed, firms such as Spartanburg's West German Menzel Corporation export from the United States to other countries. Menzel now exports 25 percent of its products to such places as South America, Canada, Indonesia, and even Germany.

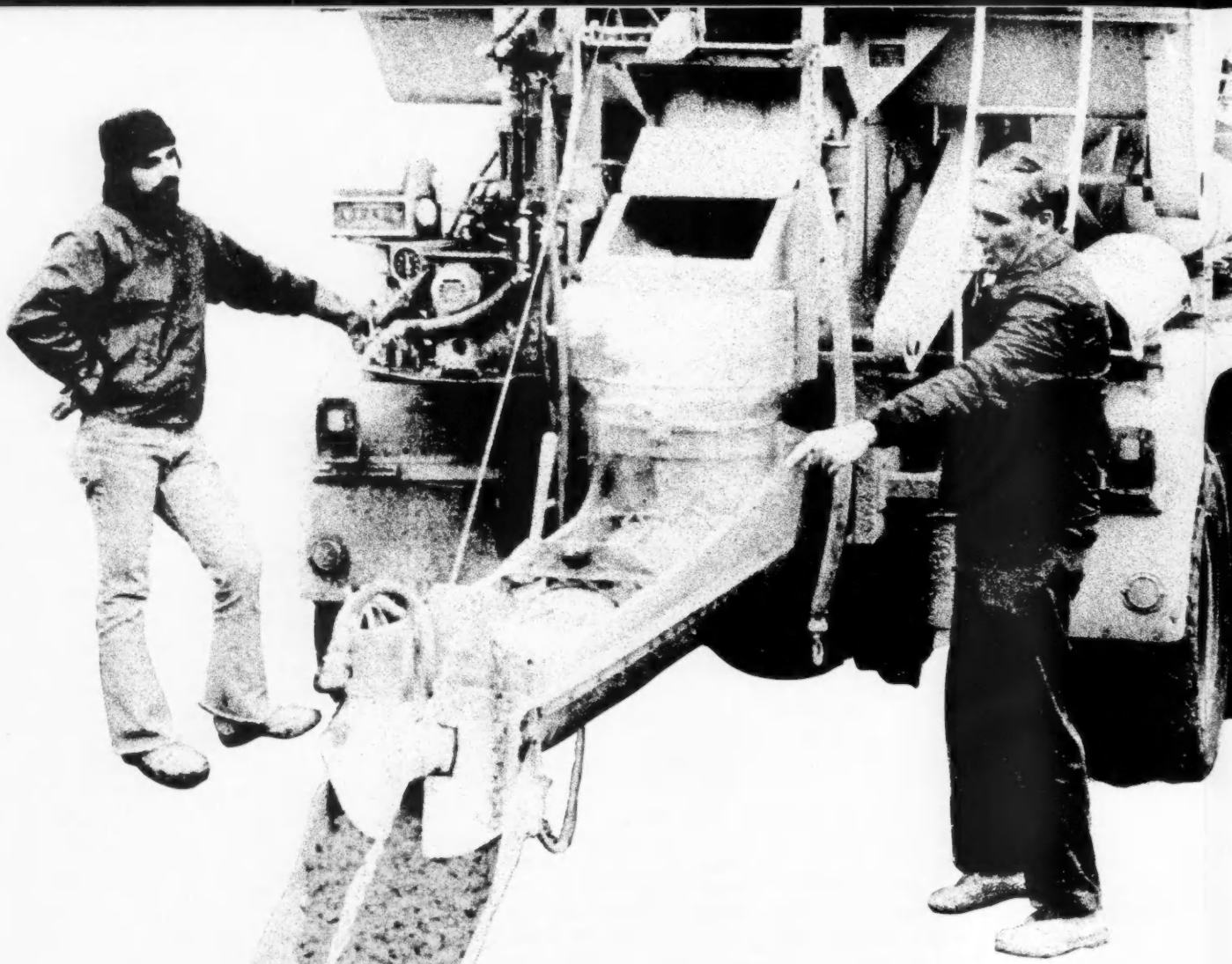
A final important result is improving our domestic economic performance through greater competition. Foreign investment in the U.S. tends to force locally dominant firms to produce efficiently or be replaced in the competitive struggle. Thus, direct foreign investment acts as a stimulant for American industry.

The higher level of affluence and employment has had its effect on Spartanburg's style as well. It is now a cosmopolitan city, with an honorary Swiss Consul; an Oktoberfest; stores that sell fondue, Kartoffelsalat, geraucherte Wurstchen; and an airport that is the region's first inland port of entry, complete with customs officers.

Spartanburg's new identity also is expressed in another way—in the kind of gallant gesture that is the hallmark of a city with spirit. When Uganda expelled a large number of persons of Asian origin, the Spartanburg community extended a welcome to over 100 of them, a welcome that often included employment in the area's foreign plants.

Typical of the immigrants was the Gower Juma family. They arrived with little more than the contents of two cardboard suitcases, Mr. Juma's accountancy skills, much apprehension, and a closely held hard knot of hope. Recently, THE SPARTANBURG HERALD carried a picture of Mr. and Mrs. Juma, their daughter Anishna and son Hanif. It showed a well-dressed family standing at the doorway of a brand new home. Juma was quoted as asking the same question that so many immigrants have asked before him, "Where else could I come penniless and own a home and a car in just a year?"

It can still happen only in America. But that it happens to happen in Spartanburg is due largely to a benign foreign "invasion" that has brought with it not confrontation, challenge, conflict, and counterattack, but jobs, jobs, jobs, jobs. □



Doing Something Concrete

Training Paves The Way for Retired Sergeant to Become a Contractor

Three years ago, Ronald G. Smith put one career behind him—22 years in the Army, most of them as a mechanic or supervisor in equipment maintenance shops. It was work he was tired of, but it was the only kind of work he knew. Before leaving military service for civilian life, however, Smith entered a Project Transition program at Fort Campbell, Ky., where he was stationed. His purpose was to get a start in a new occupation.

Transition proved to be a pathway to a thriving business, Smith says. Today this veteran is president of Smith Concrete Service, Inc., in Clarksville, Tenn., a contracting firm which provides concrete mixed fresh at a construction site. To make this service possible, Smith bought two "Concrete-Mobile" trucks—the new one cost $43,000, and he paid $24,000 for a used one—which haul sand, gravel, cement, and water in separate compartments, then mix them on the job.

His success did not come about overnight, Smith points out. First, he had to learn the rudiments of his trade in the 4 months he spent in Project Transition. Almost all of this instruction was practical, on-the-job experience.

The program, which operates at military bases across the U.S., offers

Smith delivers a load of concrete to a construction job at Fort Campbell, where he spent much of his military career.

Using his front loader, Smith scoops up crushed rock for the Concrete-Mobile.

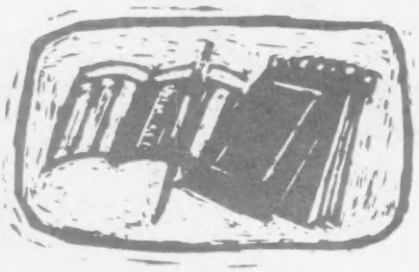
service personnel many different kinds of short courses to introduce them to civilian occupations with a future. It is a cooperative effort by the Manpower Administration, Department of Defense, other Federal agencies, unions, and private business. In Smith's case, training was done by Dominic Marasa, a journeyman and trained instructor provided by the Portland Cement Association, a trade group, and the Operative Plasterers' and Cement Masons' union. Smith says that Marasa's teaching gave him all the basic skills he needed in an occupation in which he had no previous experience.

After getting his discharge, Smith worked a year and a half as a residential plastering contractor in Clarksville. Then he decided to expand his capabilities and enrolled under the GI bill as a full-time student at Lake Land College in Illinois. He chose this school because it offered a major in concrete technology. In his 2 years at Lake Land, Smith took accounting and other business courses, mathematics, surveying, and communications in addition to his concrete technology studies. In the spring of 1973, he graduated with an associate degree in applied science.

Smith and his wife then moved back to Clarksville, where he formed a corporation with a local lumberyard operator. The town seems like home to the couple because Smith was stationed at nearby Fort Campbell for half of his years in service. Another reason for settling there, Smith says, is the good outlook for his business. Two industrial parks are opening up and drawing some large industries. Also, an interstate highway is planned for the area. All in all, Smith feels that things are working out pretty well for a fellow who was without a compatible trade 3 years ago.

In fiscal 1973, the Transition program was important to the future plans of many other veterans. During the year, nearly 104,000 servicemen took job training in this program at military installations around the country. Still others received job counseling at bases overseas. □

News & Notes



A decision that could have a beneficial effect on the pay of women managers throughout the retail industry has been handed down by the U.S. Court of Appeals in New Orleans. The court ruled that a retail chain violated the Federal Equal Pay Act by paying women department supervisors less than men for substantially the same work. In its ruling, the Court of Appeals overturned a lower court ruling that the pay differential was justified because the women supervisors were in charge of clothing and other so-called softline departments that required less skill than the appliance and similar hardline departments usually headed by men. The U.S. Department of Labor, which brought the suit, charged that the differences in pay were based on sex, rather than differences in skill requirements. The case involved the J. M. Fields chain.

* * *

Representatives of some 100 major area employers attended a luncheon in Dallas to celebrate the more than 5,000 placements achieved over the years by the McKinney Job Corps Center for Women. Dallas employers are credited with hiring more than 2,000 young women from the center.

* * *

The functions of the Jobs for Veterans (JFV) Program national committee have been transferred to the National Alliance of Businessmen (NAB) and the U.S. Department of Labor, which will continue the 3-year job promotional effort for Vietnam-era veterans on a permanent basis. The NAB's responsibilities will include conducting an all-media information campaign to encourage jobs for veterans and sponsoring "job information days" throughout the country. It also will cosponsor overseas job information fairs with the Department of Defense for soon-to-be-released servicemen and women. The Labor Department will provide leadership and support services to the JFV Interagency Committee--composed of the Departments of Labor, Defense, and Commerce; the Veterans Administration; and the NAB--and will assume responsibility for continued program liaison with governors' and mayors' JFV task forces. The Labor Department's Manpower Administration and Federal-State employment security agencies will continue serving as the major operational arm of the program, working closely with the NAB and the Veterans Administration. Responsibility for coordinating activities of 18 Federal agencies participating in the President's Veterans Program (PVP)—of which JFV has been an integral part—rests with the Secretary of Labor.

* * *

A record number of Americans--almost 4.3 million--were moonlighting in May 1973, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Although the number of people holding two jobs was at a record level, the proportion of moonlighters among all employed workers was 5.1 percent, about the same as it has been for the past 5 years. Four out of five people who worked at two jobs were men, and teachers below the college level and protective service workers had the highest moonlighting rates.

* * *

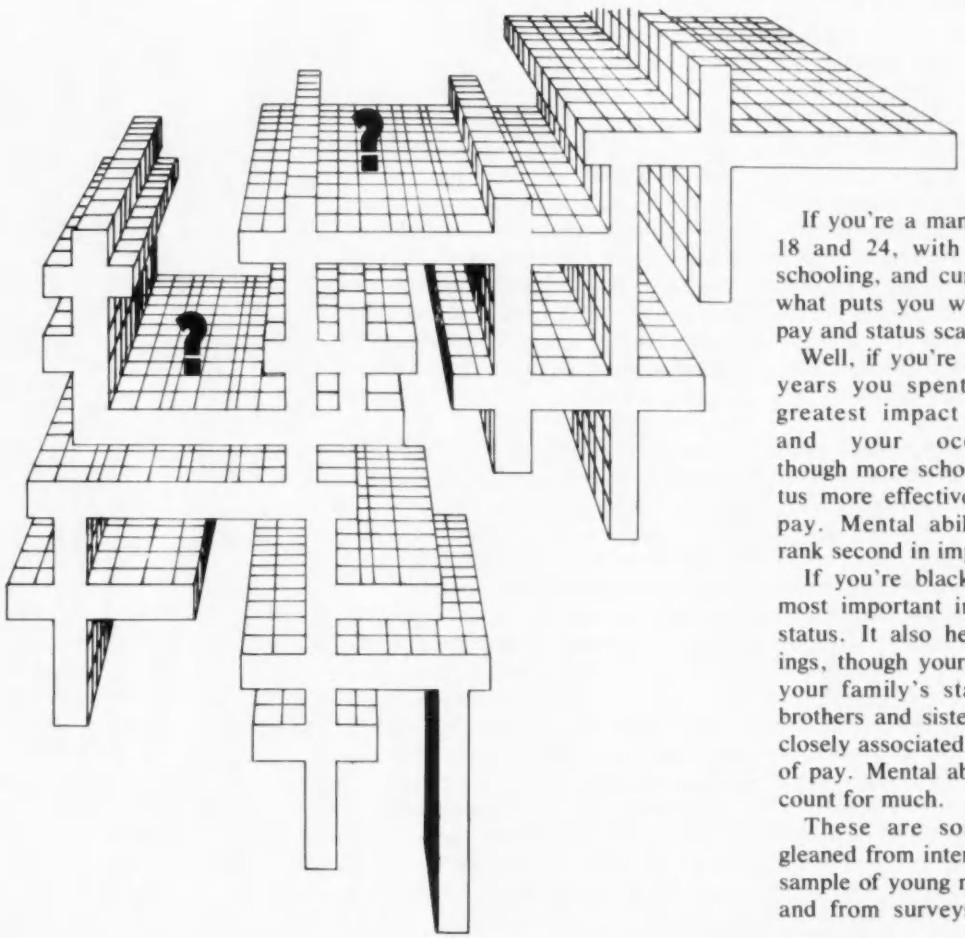
The forces of male chauvinism have struck out in an attempt to keep girl baseball players out of the New Jersey Little League. Sylvia Pressler, a hearing examiner for the State's Division of Civil Rights, ruled that girls must be permitted to play in the league, which had been restricted to boys 8 to 12 years old. The case was brought by the National Organization for Women (NOW) after a Hoboken team gave in to a demand from the Little League national organization that it drop a girl player from its roster.

* * *

The U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare has awarded $8.6 million to 10 medical schools to continue the Area Health Education Center (AHEC) program. The program is designed to link medical schools with hospitals and various educational institutions to train health personnel in medically underserved areas. About 3,300 persons, ranging from nurse aides to practicing physicians, received training in AHEC programs during the 1972-73 school year. The number in training during the current school year is estimated at 3,500.

Young Men at Work: Where They Are and Why

Study Probes Relationship of Race, Education to Labor Market Success



If you're a man between the ages of 18 and 24, with at least 8 years of schooling, and currently out of school, what puts you where you are on the pay and status scales?

Well, if you're white, the number of years you spent in school has the greatest impact on both your pay and your occupational status, though more schooling boosts your status more effectively than your rate of pay. Mental ability and health both rank second in importance.

If you're black, school will be the most important influence on your job status. It also helps boost your earnings, though your family background—your family's status, the number of brothers and sisters you have—is most closely associated with your hourly rate of pay. Mental ability and health don't count for much.

These are some of the findings gleaned from interviews with a national sample of young men in the late 1960's, and from surveys mailed to the high

This article was prepared by graduate students at the University of Arizona as part of a Manpower Administration-funded project designed to expand the use of manpower research by presenting findings in the most effective way.

Young Men

schools they attended. The interviews and surveys were part of a long-term study[1]—being carried out by the Ohio State University Center for Human Resource Research under contract with the Manpower Administration—of four sections of the U.S. population: Men aged 45–59, women 30 to 44, young men 14 to 24, and young women 14 to 24.

Mental ability—or whatever is measured by IQ tests—was very important to job success for young white men, the researchers found. For one thing, youth with higher IQ scores tended to stay in school longer, and staying in school often leads to better jobs. But ability was an important factor in its own right: When comparisons were made of white men with the same education, the brighter ones usually were in better jobs.

For blacks, IQ scores had some influence on wages, but not much on job status. If a brighter black could not get a better job than a slow one with the same schooling, and did not get ahead the way a bright white man did, the cause often was discrimination. The researchers found clear evidence of this in their data (from 1966 and 1967).

If your dad was a sanitation man, will you be one, too? Race appears to have a lot to do with the answer. Not too many whites wound up in dad's occupation, or used family contacts to land a job. Apparently, a lot of white "juniors" are striking out in directions of their own.

For blacks, however, the researchers found that the sanitation job "inheritance" may not be far from the truth. Even in the second half of the sixties, discrimination was keeping many black young men from exploring occupations other than the types their fathers could obtain. Thus a cycle of so-called "inherited poverty" is forced upon them—denying them the social mobility of their white peers.

Despite the importance of length of schooling, there seemed to be little relationship between the quality of a school—as measured by dollars spent per student—and its dropout rate or the job success of its former students.

In general, if going to school is viewed as an investment in the future, the return—in terms of better jobs—was about as high for blacks as for whites. This was especially true for blacks willing to move to another geographic area to get a better job. To some, this finding may seem to conflict with other studies, which show whites having a higher return for education. Two explanations of the differences can be offered:

- Other studies may deal with older men, or a wider range of ages. An advantage for whites does show up

[1] The two supplementary studies of the Ohio State University Center for Human Resource Research on which this article is based are available from the National Technical Information Service, 5285 Port Royal Rd., Springfield, Va. 22151. *Determinants of Early Labor Market Success Among Young Men: Race, Ability, Quantity and Quality of Schooling* is $3.75 for a paper copy and $1.45 for microfiche (specify accession number PB 208638. *Determinants of Educational Attainment and Retention in School* is $3 for a paper copy and $1.45 for microfiche (specify accession number PB 209625). Please enclose payment with order.

with postcollege training (law school, medical school, Ph.D. programs). Since the oldest man in the study group discussed here was only 24, this highest level of education was not yet a major factor.

• Some studies may deal with data gathered in the fifties and early sixties. Perhaps the civil rights action of the sixties led to enough recruitment of qualified black graduates by business and industry to start reversing the old trends by mid-decade.

The so-called "sheepskin effect"—the importance of a college diploma—was very evident in the Ohio State study. The data show that a degree was more effective for blacks than whites as a key to better jobs, and more important for improving status than for getting better pay.

The researchers found that race made a difference in nearly every job-related area examined. Blacks as a group had lower wages, lower job status, and more unemployment than whites. Some of this might be attributable to the fact that blacks as a group were at a disadvantage to whites of the same ages because they had lower family status, came from large families, had lower IQ test scores and fewer years of education. But even allowing for differences in background and education, the researchers found that about one-fourth the difference in wages between blacks and whites, and seven-tenths of the difference in job status, were due to labor market discrimination.

Schooling Data Examined

Since schooling made a substantial difference in the job success of the youth studied, the data on it merit a closer look. Among young men 18 to 24 years old who were not in school at the time of the study but had at least 8 years of education, those with higher IQ test scores were more likely to have stayed in school longer. This held for blacks and whites. In fact, once a youth had entered high school his further academic attainment appeared to be based on IQ ability—blacks and whites of the same ability were on equal footing here. Racial discrimination may have been a factor in primary school dropouts, the study indicates, but not at the secondary school level. Actually, this need not mean that discrimination itself was less in the upper grades, just that the remaining students were more hardened to it.

Economic factors—as measured by the number of children in a family—played an important role in determining whether young men in the 18-to-24 age group stayed in school. (The assumption here is that the more children there are in a family, the less money there is per child, and the more likely that older children must work to help feed their brothers and sisters.) For whites only, higher social status appeared to have a positive influence on staying in school. (Here higher status is presumed to mean fewer economic demands on a student as well as stronger motivation for learning.)

In general, the researchers found that blacks in the 18-to-24 age group were more motivated to complete school than were whites with similar family background and ability. However, "discrimination" worked to bring down the actual grade level completed by blacks.

Information on another group of young men—those 14 to 24 in April 1966 who were still enrolled in school (below college) at that time—provides more specific insights on dropouts and on students who go on to college. Seven percent of this group dropped out or were pushed out of high school in 1966–67. Age, race, and expectations all played major roles in determining who stayed in school.

Nearly half the students in the 14-to-24 age group who were interviewed fit into a "mainstream" pattern of school success: They were not overage for their grade; they said they would like to go to college for 4 years; and when they were 14 they had access to several kinds of reading materials. Out of 100 youth like this, 99 stayed in school or graduated.

EASTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY
YPSILANTI
U. S. DEPOSITORY DOCUMENT

Young Men

Others in the 14-to-24 group had similar hopes for a college education, but as children did not have much access to things to read. About 75 percent of these young men were black, and 92 percent of the time they stayed in high school. (In general, black youngsters who wanted 4 years of college were 8 times more likely than their white counterparts to have had little opportunity to read at home.) They usually lived in the South, and they were only half as likely as those in the "mainstream" pattern to be in a college preparatory high school program. Students in this second group who also were from poor families often found that the hard facts of economics overruled aspirations. Such students were 4 times more likely to drop out of school than other youth with their college hopes and reading background.

One in every 10 high school students with "low aspirations" dropped out of high school. Although most of those defined as having low aspirations said they would be happy just to graduate from high school, the researchers included in this group anyone who did not want more than 2 years of college. Students in this group were most likely to quit school if they had to change residence, they did not like school, or they liked school but had low IQ's. Income was a factor, too: Those whose families had incomes under $6,000 per year were more likely to drop out.

The fear that, "I'm not getting better, I'm getting older," may be the rationale that leads to high dropout rates among students who are overage for their grade. While being overage for grade can result from frequent school changes or long-term illnesses, it most often is associated with poor school performance. The statistics for this group were pretty grim: Overage students were four times as likely as their younger classmates to drop out. Blacks were almost three times as likely as whites to be overage. As might be expected, 99 percent of the overage youth were in vocational or general, rather than college preparatory, programs.

As they pass the legal age limit (16) for compulsory attendance, pupils in the overage group drop out in greater numbers. Only two-thirds of the overage students who turned 16 in 1966 were still in school (or graduated) a year later. For youth under the legal limit, those holding outside jobs were most likely to quit.

Who Goes to College

Race, high school course of study, family background—the same factors that emerge in discussing dropouts—are significant in explaining who goes to college. A study was made of 453 young men who were high school seniors in 1966. In 1967, about half the group had gone on to college. Nearly 4 out of every 5 seniors who said they expected to go to college for 4 years or more actually were in college the following year. Only 18 percent of those with lower expectations (2 years of college or less) went on to college. But Tinkerbell to the contrary notwithstanding, it is not a simple case of wishing for something and having it fall in your lap.

A closer look at the group who expected to go through 4 years of college reveals an interesting split. Ninety-two percent of the young men whose mothers were high school graduates went on to college, but only 58 percent of those with less educated mothers realized their expectations. Even among the young men with well-educated mothers, economic necessity sometimes postponed or canceled the trip to college. At least this is one way of interpreting the fact that youth in one-parent families or families with more than six members were less likely to go on with their education.

College hopes often were dashed for young blacks. These young men were more than three times as likely as whites to have poorly educated mothers. What is more, blacks whose mothers did not complete high school went on to college only half as often as whites with mothers having similar educational backgrounds.

Three-quarters of all the young men who had high expectations and had been in a college preparatory program in high school also had mothers with at least a high school diploma. But the other quarter in the college preparatory program still went on to college twice as often as did those with high expectations who were in the vocational, commercial, or general program. Furthermore, even those in the college preparatory program who had low expectations for themselves were relatively likely to go on to college.

Despite the complexity of these relationships, a simple fact emerges: Choice of high school program is very important in determining whether a child will go on to college. Those with low expectations are most often not in college preparatory programs, and usually do not continue their studies beyond high school. But which comes first, expectations or program selection? Does a student fall into a vocational program and then, feeling locked out of college, reduce his aspirations? Or does he decide that college is not for him, and then select a more desired or more useful sequence of courses? These questions remain unanswered by the studies at hand. □

Words & Figures

Indians in Manpower Programs

Indians account for less than half of 1 percent of the U.S. population. But in fiscal year 1973 they made up 3.1 percent of all participants and 3 percent of new enrollments in Manpower Administration work and training programs.

Of 2,513,900 people who participated in manpower programs last year, 77,110 were Indians. This total participation count includes 1,459,600 new enrollments during the year; of these, 43,160 were Indians.

Indians qualify for a disproportionate share of work and training openings because of the severity of their economic problems. Job opportunities are scarce on Indian reservations and unemployment rates average about 40 percent. Underemployment also is high. Consequently, the pattern of enrollments by Indians in manpower programs was quite different from that of other participants. Indian enrollment was weighted more toward work experience and subsidized job openings, less toward on-the-job training and other programs that require jobs in the regular economy.

Only 3,360 Indians, or 4 percent of all Indian participants, received on-the-job training during the year, compared with 7 percent of all non-Indian trainees. On the other hand, Operation Mainstream, a work-experience program, accounted for 6 percent of all Indian participation in manpower programs while only 2 percent of non-Indian participants were in Mainstream projects.

Because the Federal Government and tribal councils are major employers of Indians, enrollment in the Public Employment Program (PEP) and Public Service Careers (PSC) was heavy on the reservations. Almost 45 percent of Federal funds obligated for Indian manpower programs was for PEP, and PEP and PSC accounted for 11,380 or 37 percent of all Indian participants, excluding those in summer youth programs.

Indian enrollment in youth-oriented programs was high. The Neighborhood Youth Corps and the Job Corps accounted for 60 percent of all Indian participants. The same two programs accounted for about 50 percent of all participants in Manpower Administration programs.

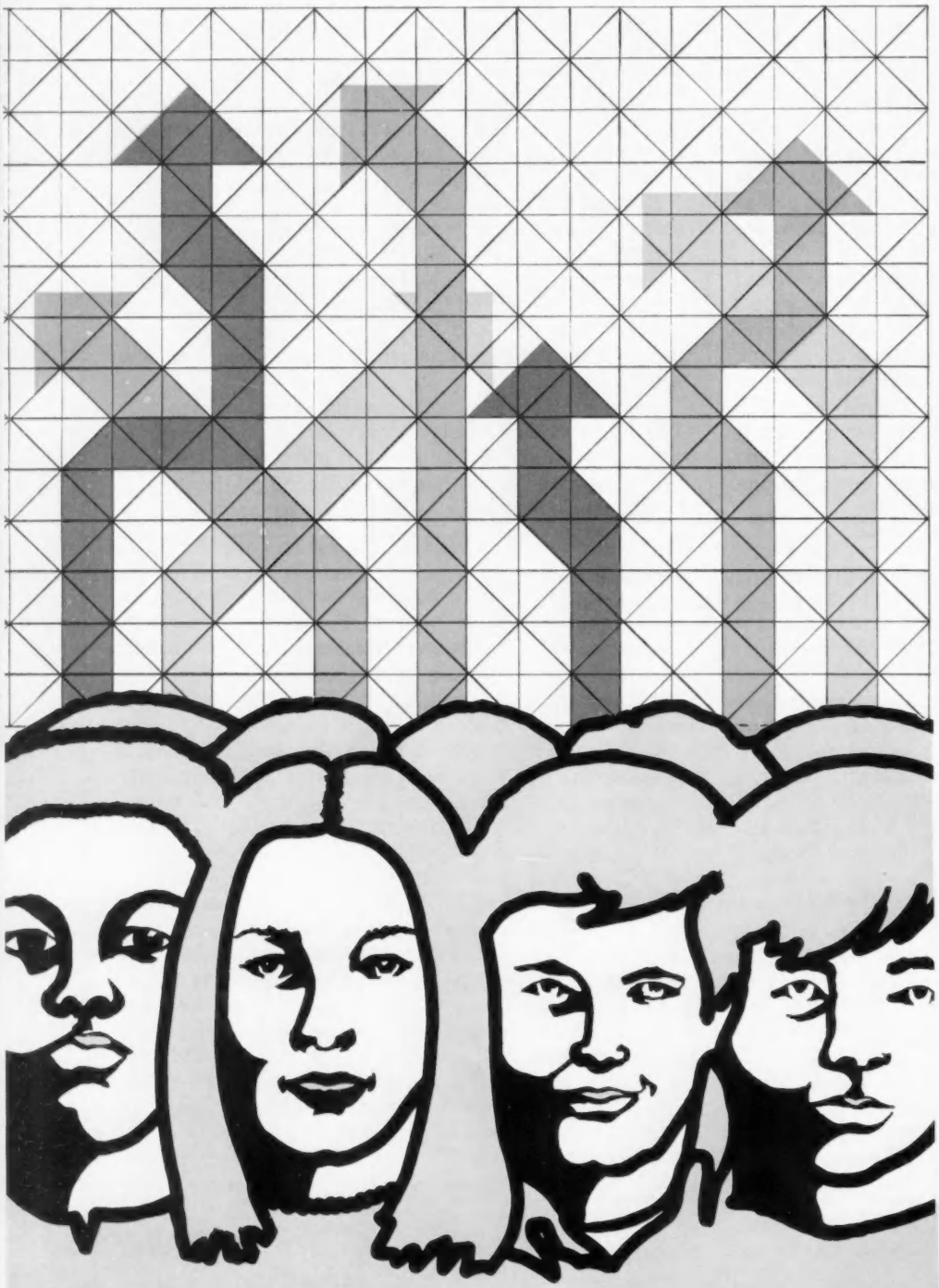
Indian Enrollment in Manpower Programs
Fiscal Year 1973

Program	Total new Enrollment	Indian New Enrollment Percent	Number
Total	1,459,600	3.0	43,160
MDTA Institutional Training	119,600	2.4	2,870
MDTA On-the-Job Training	27,600	.5	140
Jobs Optional Program	48,000	1.9	910
Operation Mainstream	37,500	7.9	2,960
Concentrated Employment Program	68,800	2.9	2,000
Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program	51,500	2.5	1,290
Work Incentive Program	238,500	1.0	2,390
Job Corps	43,400	2.6	1,130
Public Employment Program	177,900	2.7	4,800
Public Service Careers	18,400	5.8	1,070
Neighborhood Youth Corps	628,400	3.8	23,600

Planning Ahead for Careers

by Robert K. Roney and Charles M. Achilles

Memphis Schools Teach Students At All Levels About Work



Career education is getting high marks in Memphis.

It has eased placement of city high school graduates in jobs, or in further education and training. And it shows promise of cutting dropout rates. So after a 3-year trial with Federal money, it has become a regular part of the school curriculum.

Career education got its start in Memphis in 1970 through a $431,000 demonstration project called SPAN for Start Planning Ahead Now. The project was carried out in 20 target schools, most of them in the inner city, including three junior highs and two high schools, with total enrollment of about 16,000 or 12 percent of the city's school children.

Similar projects were funded at the same time in all 50 States by the Office of Education under the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968. The purpose was to promote career education, which can be described briefly as education that prepares all youth upon graduation from high school for a job or more education and training—or both. It exposes students to a wide variety of occupations so they can make wiser career choices, teaches them the good and bad of each choice so they get a realistic view of the work, and develops in them an attitude towards work that will help them be more successful whether they decide to be a laborer or a surgeon.

To stimulate creativity and diversity, each project was allowed, as much as practicable, to go its own way in establishing a program to meet these objectives. Project SPAN, regarded by the Office of Education as one of the most

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Robert Roney and Charles Achilles were field coordinator and administrative director, respectively, of an evaluation of the project described in this article. The evaluation was done by the University of Tennessee under contract with the U.S. Office of Education. Both Roney and Achilles are associate professors of education at the University of Tennessee.

successful, chose to aim at poorer children, from kindergarten through high school, because they are most likely to drop out before high school graduation. It combines elements of vocational education, traditional academic disciplines, and guidance practices.

For the elementary grades, SPAN stresses awareness of broad occupational fields or career clusters. Junior high programs allow students to explore more specifically the vocations in two or three clusters of their choice. In high school, students are prepared for job entry or further career training at technical institutes or colleges.

Television Films Used

One of the main tools for orienting grade schoolers to work is a series of 10 specially designed television films aimed at fourth, fifth, and sixth graders. The first is an introductory show entitled *Why We Work*. The others present material basic to nine career clusters: Construction, transportation, health occupations, office, communication, manufacturing, sales, food service, and other service occupations (such as hair styling, weather forecasting, postal service, and police and fire protection).

All the films are in popular formats. The construction film, for example, is styled after the television show, Mission Impossible, but the theme is "Mission Possible," to convey the idea that no occupation or career is foreclosed to any student, no matter how poor. The story centers around the building trades as seen through the eyes of a carpenter's apprentice, and shows bricklayers, roofers, plumbers, and other skilled workers. Through the film, students tour a construction site where a housing subdivision is taking shape. They are introduced to a wide array of construction equipment and building trades skills and see the relationships of various trades to the total job of building a home. The other films treat their occupational clusters in similar fashion.

Developed by Project SPAN, the films were produced by Memphis' public television broadcasting station for about $800 each. Each film is featured for 1 month during the school year, and is shown three different times on the public television station. Video taped presentations are available to teachers whose schedules do not fit regular broadcast times.

After the film is shown, teachers use a variety of techniques, including written and visual materials, math problems, and puzzles and games for further exploration of jobs within the cluster. Then the students actually practice some of the skills shown in the film.

In one classroom, for instance, students use various handtools to cut cardboard pieces for a giant replica of a camera. Making the camera requires skills in construction and building, in measuring and mathematics, in fitting and fastening things together, and in drawing up and reading plans. Later this camera may be used for a science lesson to demonstrate various elements of photography—another occupation the youngsters will study. The inside of the camera may be used as a darkroom for developing pictures taken in the class. Other students mix small batches of concrete for laying bricks which are to be the foundation of the camera just as if it were a house.

This scene is duplicated throughout the SPAN program for elementary youngsters. By coordinating career clusters depicted in the films, written materials about careers, and actual "hands on" experiences, teachers and pupils work together to understand relationships among occupations and the skills needed for them. Field trips are also part of the learning process. These are arranged by resource specialists (specially trained teachers) who also take charge of all materials and equipment needed for career education.

In junior high, students are encouraged to choose two or three occupational clusters and to focus in some depth on various jobs within those clusters. Occupations within the clusters range from unskilled and semiskilled to the highly professional. Students are assigned to determine the skills and education needed for each job level. The rewards of each job are discussed, as well as the relationships of jobs at different levels—say a physician to a dietition—in the same occupational cluster.

Part-Time Jobs Found

Work-study programs conducted in cooperation with Memphis business and industrial firms begin in the ninth grade. These programs attempt to encourage potential dropouts to stay in school to develop basic skills necessary for getting and keeping a job. All junior high school students 16 or older who are interested in the work-study program are enrolled in a class taught by the SPAN job placement coordinator. The coordinator emphasizes the importance of completing school to success in the labor market and advises students on how to get and keep a job. Part-time jobs are found for work-study students in such places as laundries, service stations, department stores, and restaurants.

Teachers of all subjects in SPAN junior high schools are encouraged to

Planning Ahead

For these Memphis elementary schoolers, the "hands-on" phase of the business and office careers cluster includes a chance to operate an electric typewriter.

incorporate career education activities into their classes. Career-oriented materials have been developed for and successfully used by teachers of art, industrial arts, home economics, mathematics, social studies, English, and science. English teachers, for example, explain how mastery of that subject is necessary for a career in journalism.

A major concern in the career exploration process at the junior high level is the attitude of the student toward the overall concept of work. Interest in doing a task well and the concomitant rewards are stressed. Artisans, craftworkers, professionals, and service workers are invited to the schools to speak to students about the rewards, requirements, and realities of their fields of work. Students also make field trips to businesses and industries in the area. These trips are carefully planned by the SPAN staff and classroom teachers so specific objectives are in sight for the students.

The business community has come to appreciate and welcome this kind of disciplined group visit as compared with some rather helter-skelter outings arranged in the past. When students return from trips, academic activities (such as writing, discussions, or simulated problems) are often undertaken to reinforce what was encountered in the "real world."

At the senior high school level, SPAN becomes more sharply focused. The project attempts, without locking anyone irrevocably into a chosen field, to have students take practical steps to prepare for careers. Sophisticated occupational information programs are added to SPAN classroom activities, field trips, and work experience to help students learn more about specific occupations. How this works can perhaps best be demonstrated by the case of a hypothetical tenth grader called Mary Smith.

Mary has not decided the career she wishes to pursue, but she has narrowed it to one of two types of work. Until last year, when her ninth grade class explored several career clusters, she had wanted to be a nurse. She is still interested in the health services, but in social studies last year she discovered some related jobs—inhalation therapy and radiology—which she thinks she might like better. She also was fascinated by the idea of becoming a drafter, working in the field of architectural design. Since she has done well in both art and science in school, she feels she might qualify in either of these career clusters. But how can she find out more about them?

Status of Graduated Seniors from Northside and Westside High Schools -- 1972 and 1973

Status	Northside 1972 %	Northside 1973 %	Westside 1972 %	Westside 1973 %
College	17	29	16	27
Vocational/Technical Schools	6	16	7	17
Summer Vocational Programs	0	15	0	0
Apprenticeship Programs	0	1	3	6
Military Service	7	6	7	5
Employed Fulltime	30	28	53	40
Unemployed	11	2	4	4
Unable to Follow Up	29	3	11	0
TOTAL GRADUATED	339	386	152	124

Note: Due to rounding, totals may not equal 100%.

Career Questions Answered

Through SPAN, Mary has ample resources at her disposal. She stops by the school guidance office to fill out inquiry cards on inhalation therapy, radiology, and architectural drafting for the Computer Assisted Career Information (CACI) Program. These cards are forwarded to the school system's central office for computer processing. The CACI system has been specially designed to reflect career information for nearly 500 different occupations in the Memphis Delta Region. Information for the system was obtained from the local State employment service office, the U.S. Department of Labor's OCCUPATIONAL OUTLOOK HANDBOOK, and local employers.

Within 3 days Mary receives a computer-produced reply—addressed to her by name—giving her information about job opportunities, skill and training requirements, working conditions, and pay ranges for the jobs she has chosen. As an aid to followup counseling, the computer also produces a monthly report for counselors in each participating school showing all inquiries from stu-

Students in the graphic arts course —part of the communications and media cluster— at Hamilton High learn the rudiments of operating a small press.

Outdoor work is just the ticket for some youngsters and these fifth graders try it out as part of the construction careers cluster.

Northside High senior Charles Clark repairs an engine in auto mechanics class. In high school, students narrow their career choices and train for specific occupations.

Westside High senior John Morrow stamps prices on canned goods at a Memphis grocery, and learns about merchandising while earning spending money.

Sex is no longer an insurmountable barrier to many jobs, so ninth-grader Antionette Laird's classes include machine shop as well as homemaking.

dents in that school. This information also can be used by school administrators and teachers to plan curriculum changes and to arrange for appropriate speakers and field trips.

If Mary wants still more written information about the careers of interest to her, she can get it from the school SPAN office's INFOE file. INFOE (Information Needed for Occupational Entry) is a microfilm information system developed by the Research Coordinating Unit at the University of Tennessee which gives the user in-depth job information. It goes into more detail than does CACI, giving the equivalent of four typewritten pages on each occupation, and also is localized to the Memphis Delta Region.

For help in putting what she has learned to use in the local labor market, Mary can go to the SPAN job development coordinator, who works with the local employment service and employers to keep abreast of job and training openings. The coordinator can arrange visits to businesses related to Mary's career choices and also can advise her on a variety of school activities related to those interests. If she is

Planning Ahead

not eligible for the work-study program because she is not yet 16, Mary still can take vocational offerings in drafting and health professions. She also is advised to continue her academic courses since both of her areas of interest may require postsecondary schooling. Career education is clearly concerned with long-range education, as well as developing entry-level job skills.

If Mary chooses to go directly from high school into the work force, the job placement coordinator will work with the regular guidance staff and vocational teachers to help her find employment. Through units in her English classes she will have learned the value of good letters of application, how to complete application forms, and how to handle a job interview. Vocational courses and work-study assignments will have prepared her with simulated and real experiences in the world of work. If she chooses to go to college, the SPAN staff will help her acquire information on entrance requirements, tuition costs, and scholarships.

The obvious question at this juncture is: How well has SPAN worked? Since the program only began in 1970 and it encompasses grades kindergarten through high school, it will require many years for a definitive answer, but some preliminary assessements can be made.

At the junior high level, teachers have found that SPAN career education adds interest and content to their classes. Counselors have found that the SPAN staff supplement, rather than usurp, their efforts. Many junior high age students who in the past were marking time until they could drop out are now interested in pursuing an education which will bring them a reward they can easily see and understand—employment and the money it provides. Often potential discipline problems are averted and dropouts kept in school through the work-study program for overaged students, who have been motivated to learn more reading and math in the process.

Some fragmentary statistics also point toward success. Records indicate that the highest dropout rate in the Memphis city schools occurs between the ninth and tenth grades, when most students pass the mandatory school attendance age of 16. After 2 years, the dropout rate was down from 8.1 percent to 7.1 percent in the SPAN schools at this level while it had increased from 3.3 percent to 3.4 percent in the city as a whole.

Placements Rise Sharply

Statistics also demonstrate SPAN's effectiveness at preparing youngsters graduating from high school for further education or training or for jobs (see chart). During the 1971–72 school year, the second year of the project, vocational guidance and job placement centers went into full operation in the two target high schools. The two schools graduated 491 young men and women in 1972 and by August, with the project's help, 336 or 68 percent had been placed: 183 in full-time jobs, 36 in training, 35 in the military, and 82 in college. Forty-two—9 percent—were unemployed and 113 could not be located.

The following year the project bore down harder to help graduates, with the result that by August some 485 or 95 percent of the 510 graduates had been placed: 158 in full-time jobs, 151 in training, 29 in the military, and 147 in college. Only 12—2½ percent—were unemployed and 13 could not be located.

These followup statistics are particularly impressive when compared with those for the two schools' graduating class of 1970, the last before the project started, when it could be determined that only 30 percent of the graduates of predominantly black Northside High School and 47 percent of the graduates of the predominantly white Westside High School had been placed. The remainder were unemployed or could not be located.

Employers report SPAN students are better prepared for the job market, especially in the crucial area of work attitudes. And paper and pencil tests, with all their weaknesses and inaccuracies, have reflected in a number of instances tremendous growth on the part of the students in both knowledge and maturity relating to the world of work.

As encouraging as these statistics and reports are, perhaps the most significant vote of confidence came from the Memphis Board of Education last summer when Federal money for the demonstration project ran out. The Board voted $165,000 to continue the project for the 1973–74 school year. This money, along with an 18-month, $99,000 State grant for Model Careers, a project similar to SPAN, has enabled the board to bring career education to 18 elementary and 20 junior and senior high schools during the current school year.

A permanent staff of 16 professionals and two secretaries, headed by James Hugueley, a former teacher and SPAN's director since its inception, is administering the program. This staff is backed up by an advisory committee of 23 members, representing local educators, parents, business and industry, students, and the local employment service. □

☆U.S. Government Printing Office 1974: 543-619/9

Publications

Following is a selected list of publications on manpower and related matters. Single copies of Manpower Administration publications for which no price is indicated can be obtained free by writing the Inquiries Section, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Room 10007, 601 D St. NW., Washington, D.C. 20213. Requests for publications from other organizations should be sent directly to the source specified in the listing. Please enclose self-addressed label with all requests for free publications. For publications not available free, write the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, and enclose payment.

Job Satisfaction: Is There a Trend?

Manpower Administration monograph reviews some of the major research on job satisfaction that has been conducted in the past 40 years. Information deals with five major topics: National trends in job satisfaction; demographic and occupational distributions of job satisfaction; motivational assumptions about what Americans look for in their jobs; the implications of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction for workers, employers, and society at large; and experiments to improve working conditions. Specify Manpower Research Monograph No. 30. 95 cents.

Careers for Women in the 70's

Women's Bureau pamphlet gives some projections for employment opportunities for women in six major occupation groups between 1970 and 1980. Can help women make realistic plans for careers in which openings will be available, in which they can more fully utilize their skills, and in which they can earn better wages. 40 cents.

National Apprenticeship and Training Standards for Cement Masonry, Asphalt and Composition Trade

Manpower Administration booklet sets forth national standards of apprenticeship for the cement masonry, asphalt and composition trade. Booklet includes the fundamental requirements for effective apprenticeship programs and outlines training methods and practices which have proved most successful in training cement mason apprentices. Should be helpful to contractors and labor representatives in every locality as a guide in establishing local committees and areawide apprenticeship programs.

How to Pay for Your Health Career Education—A Guide for Minority Students.

Discusses need for minority workers in the health field, gives approximate costs for education in the various types of work in the field, and explains where and how to get help in financing such education. Specify DHEW Publication No. (HRA) 74–8. Available from Bureau of Health Resources Administration, DHEW, Room 5B63, Building 31, 9000 Rockville Pike, Bethesda, Md. 20014.

Jobfinding Techniques for Mature Women

Women's Bureau pamphlet points out jobfinding techniques available to mature women. Is designed as a step-by-step guide to assist them to prepare for and find employment. Also aimed at women who have worked many years in one firm and suddenly have to find another job but have no experience in how to do it or those who seek a second career when full-time homemaking is no longer required. Should also be useful to employment counselors in employment services or colleges and universities. 30 cents.

An Assessment of Cultural and Linguistic Variables in Manpower and Vocational Skill Training Programs—Final Report

Final report of a project, funded by the Office of Education, which sought an assessment of the extent to which cultural and linguistic differences might prevent members of various minority groups from profiting from available manpower training programs. Project has allowed the researchers to formulate some hypotheses about the role of culture and language in manpower training experience of blacks, Chicanos, native Americans, and Appalachian whites. These hypotheses point to where new efforts can be more profitably focused. Available from Olympus Research Corporation, 955 East Ninth South, Salt Lake City, Utah 84105.

In-Service Teacher Training

An Office of Education training package of four booklets and eight filmstrips resulting from the National Curriculum Development Project for Vocational Educators of Disadvantaged and Handicapped Students. The first booklet is a final report of the project. The second, *Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating the In-Service Teacher Training Workshop* is a manual developed from the lessons learned in a series of 5-day workshops attended by over 1,200 vocational educators throughout the country. It is designed as a reference guide for in-service training of teachers, counselors, administrators, and others involved in planning and implementing special vocational education programs or services for students with special needs. The other booklets, *Supplementary Materials—Part A, and Part B* contain printed materials and complete scripts for use or local adaptation with the filmstrips included in the teacher training package. Available from Southeast AMIDS, P.O. Box 11073, Montgomery, Ala. 36111.

How Health Professions Students Finance Their Education

Report based on nationwide survey to determine how students in the health professions of medicine, osteopathy, dentistry, optometry, pharmacy, podiatry, and veterinary medicine financed their educations during the 1970–71 school year. Purpose of the survey was to provide information on patterns of expenses of students and on the sources from which income was obtained, including any indebtedness incurred to finance the students' educations. Specify DHEW Publication No. (HRA) 74–13. Available free from Division of Manpower Intelligence, National Institutes of Health, Room 3B51, Building 31, 9000 Rockville Pike, Bethesda, Md. 20014.

Manpower Training in Community Colleges

Report of Office of Education-funded survey of community colleges discusses some of the strengths of community colleges as they pertain to manpower training, and identifies problems encountered in the operation of training programs. Analyzes development, organization, and operation of comprehensive manpower training skills centers in community college settings, examines examples of alternative approaches to skills center structure, and discusses significance of manpower planning to manpower training programs in community colleges. Available from American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, One Dupont Circle NW., Washington, D.C. 20036.

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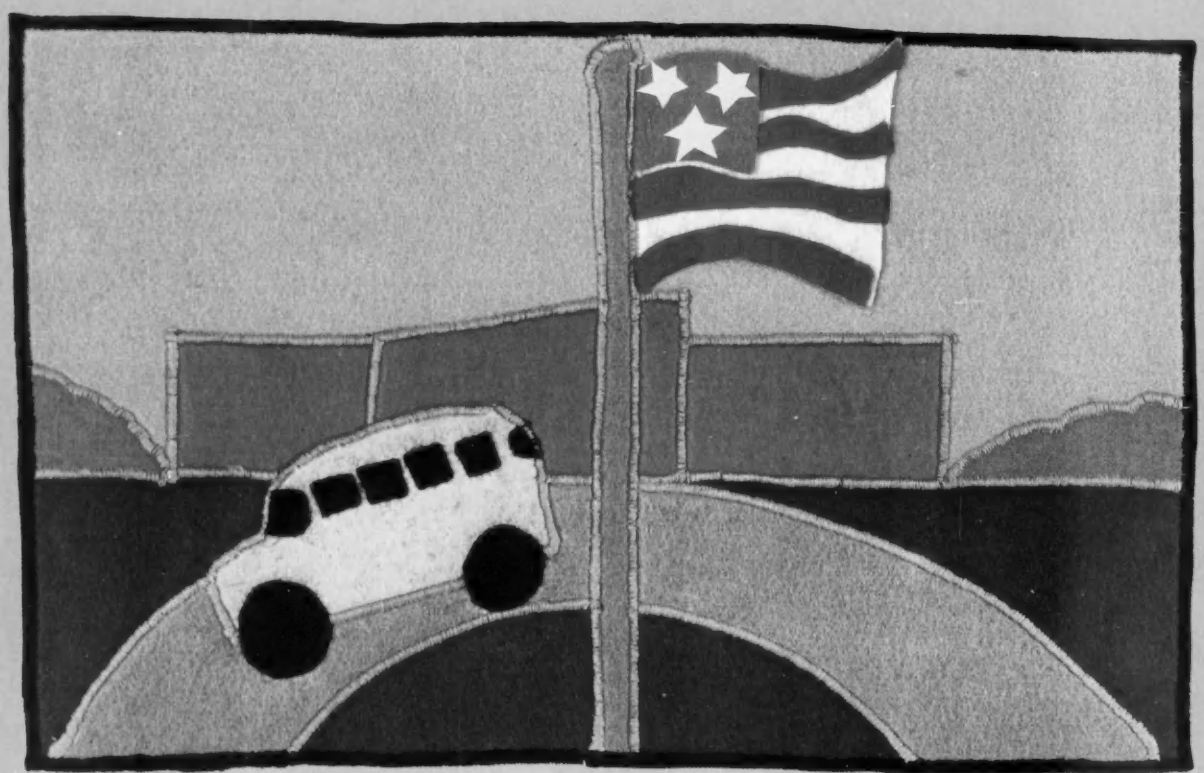
Decide what you want to accomplish, then design your project accordingly. That's the advice given sponsors of work projects for high school youth in a how-to-do-it manual that reviews some of the best programs developed over the past decade. For more on the manual and the strategies and methods it describes, see *Designing Work Projects for In-School Youth* in this issue of MANPOWER.